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ABSTRACT

This paper provides a review of the literature published between 1973 and 1993 related to the gender equity movement on varsity and collegiate levels of women's sports, and offers recommendations for women's sports into the 21st century. The paper focuses on the equity movement in the 20th century, including a historical perspective of women in sports, issues and concerns regarding the female athlete, legal remedies to end discrimination in women's sports, and the future potential of female athletes. Recommendations include ensuring equal media recognition; making compliance with Title IX of the Education Amendments Act of 1972 a condition for membership in the National Collegiate Athletic Association; increasing the number of college scholarships offered to women athletes; and having female athletic administrators regulate and evaluate women's athletic programs. (Contains approximately 45 references.) (JDD)

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THE GENDER EQUITY MOVEMENT IN WOMEN'S SPORTS: A LITERATURE REVIEW AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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PREFACE

In the College of Education and Human Ecology at Texas Woman's University, our students in masters programs typically enroll for at least two semesters to develop a professional paper. In some cases, they may elect to develop a thesis. Since these requirements are fulfilled near the end of their programs, professional interests at diverse work sites are often pursued for topic developments. Although the thesis options exist at many universities and colleges, the development of a required professional paper is rather unique; most programs have additional course work for the masters of education.

Choices for this professional paper may relate to literary reviews and recommendations, product developments, staff development or training programs, case studies, and other areas. The majority of graduate students in our Educational Leadership Department at the masters level complete professional papers. They are frequently encouraged to disseminate insights on program developments, timely recommendations, or findings through such clearinghouses as ERIC. Many of their "school reform" endeavors and accomplishments are shared with colleagues at a respective district or school. However, further dissemination of these projects might be of special interest to other professional educators, counselors, and administrators.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to dedicate this paper to my parents, Helen & James Sorenson, for their life-long support of my interest in athletics, and allowing me to pursue my interest in sports at every level of competition. I thank you for expressing the need for a good education and backing the choices that I have made in my life.

I would like to express my appreciation to my committee for their work with me on this professional paper. Committee members are Dr. Stone (who I hope is recovering well from his heart attack), Dr. Short, and Dr. Karr-Kidwell. This paper would not have been completed without the extra help from Dr. Karr-Kidwell who promptly read and corrected my mistakes, and offered her advice when it was needed. Thank you very much for helping me reach a milestone in my life.

I would also like to thank Donna Douglas for insisting that I return back to school. Without your support and encouragement, I would never have made it. I really value your friendship. Another thank you to Donna Layer and the faculty at North Ridge M.S. for assisting me with advice and reassurance that I could complete this enormous task. I couldn't have done it without your help.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Two decades have elapsed since Title IX banned gender discrimination in federally funded schools, yet equity for women in sports remains elusive (Wolff, 1992). According to the United States Commission on Civil Rights [USCCR] (1980), "Sport has become a major social institution in America, but, as has been true with many other social institutions, women have not taken part on an equal basis with men" (p.1). College officials are concerned enough about the state of gender equity that they have assembled a task force to examine short and long term solutions (Bedell, 1992a). A number of factors have worked together to increase concern about, and interest in, athletic competition for women: new sports opportunities, increased spectator interest, the rise of professional athletic opportunities, media coverage, and the desire of education institutions to comply with Title IX's mandate for equal educational opportunity (Dunkle, 1977). A commitment of action to rectify the existing discrimination would show the courage that would one day make women truly equal in the sport arena (Parkhouse, 1990). To understand the nature of female involvement in sports, the perceptions, stereotypes, benefits, and other components

need to be addressed.

Statement of the Problem

In the early 1970s sex discrimination became a major political issue in the United States, and nowhere was it more apparent than in the educational system, particularly in interscholastic and intercollegiate sport (Greendorfer, 1989a). Twenty years later, however, many obstacles remain before women can achieve equality in sports (Wolff, 1992). In an effort to identify these obstacles, the gender equity movement in women's sports into the twenty-first century and educating interested individuals concerned with equal opportunity for women in sports, need further consideration.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this paper was to provide an extensive review of the related literature and recommendations regarding the gender equity movement in women's sports into the twenty-first century. The paper focused on the equity movement in the twentieth century, including an historical perspective of women in sports, issues and concerns regarding the female athlete, legal remedies to end discrimination in women's sports, and the future potential of female athletes.

Limitations

The years of research for the extensive review of the literature was limited to the past twenty years, 1973-1993, and only included varsity and collegiate levels of athletic competition for women. Lastly, the research was only directed towards those individuals directly involved in equal opportunity for women in sports, such as athletic directors, principals, and coaches.

Definitions

Gender: the classification by which words are grouped as feminine, masculine, or neuter (Webster's New Dictionary and Thesaurus, 1981).

Equity: state or quality of being equal or fair; fairness in dealing (Grant & Geadelmann, 1977, p.2).

Equality: Condition of being equal (Grant & Geadelmann, 1977, p.2).

Gender Equity Movement: the process of the female figure progressing towards equality with the male figure.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The history of American women in sports began in the mid-nineteenth century (Gerber, Felshin, Berlin, & Wyrick, 1974). During the Victorian Era, the ideal woman was weak, fragile, and passive (Spears, 1974). She was a person "on a pedestal somewhere above the realities of life" (Gerber et al., 1974, p. 10) and "Women were expected to remain indoors, and pursue such feminine pastimes as embroidery and painting on glass" (Spears, 1974, p. 27). Ball playing was encouraged among boys because it tested speed, strength, agility, and skill but discouraged among girls, who were thought to need none of those qualities (Twin, 1979). Although most physical activity was believed too strenuous for women, both sexes occasionally participated together in recreational games that did not require high skill level or effort such as archery, bowling, croquet, and golf (Gerber et al., 1974, p. 4).

Historical Perspective

During the 1860s, great resistance towards the idea of providing higher education for women existed, because it was believed that women were mentally and physically inferior to men and therefore unable to attend class on a regular basis

(USCCR, 1980). The founders of women's colleges in the late 1880s were supportive of vigorous exercise for females only if academic pursuits were balanced with structured physical educational activities incorporated into the curriculum (Cuneen, 1989). At Vassar College, for instance, physical activities included gymnastic exercises as well as bowling, horseback riding, swimming, flower gardening, and ice-skating (USCCR, 1980). Because these activities proved to be a success, soon other women's colleges followed Vassar's lead (Spears, 1978). By the 1890s, sports were recognized by both educators and students as producing the same results as gymnastic exercises, and the team sports of basketball, volleyball, and field hockey were introduced (USCCR, 1980).

By the twentieth century, girls and women were asking for a different kind of physical education and athletic structure (Cuneen, 1989). Supporters hailed the era of the tomboy and pronounced the sickly, weak Victorian woman dead (Twin, 1979). Physical educators, however, still could find no comparable justification for women's athletics because they did not consider the development of strength appropriate for women (Gerber et al., 1974). Instead, they campaigned in favor of "play" days: regional, one-day meets in several sports between shifting, temporary teams (Twin,

1979). The teams were supervised by the school's women's physical education teacher who received no additional salary, release time, stipend, or other compensation (Cuneen, 1989). The games women competed in during the "play" days were modified to conform with women's assumed physical limitations (Twin, 1979). The most glaring example was women's basketball where a team consisted of six players: three forwards and three guards (Cuneen, 1989). The forwards stayed on half of the basketball court with the opposing guards; crossing the center line was a violation (Cuneen, 1989). Other sports that were modified were tennis, in which the number of sets to win was reduced from three of five to two of three, and bicycling and field hockey, where clothing reinforced the rules to modify movement (Twin, 1979). This "play" day attitude formed the philosophy of athletics for women and girls, which continued into the early 1960s, but by the mid-1960s, competitive athletics for girls and women were looked upon more favorably than in the 1930s (USCCR, 1980). The Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) was formed because of this new favorable attitude to provide leadership and standardization to member schools (Cuneen, 1989) and to provide a framework for appropriate athletic opportunities for women (Spears, 1978). Twin (1979) noted that throughout the twentieth century, women's growing autonomy, education,

and economic productivity have blurred the once clear distinction between masculine and feminine.

During the transitional years, women in sport have known and experienced many rejections and discriminations. A common rejection during the twentieth century was the female athlete's failure to live up to a particular concept of being feminine (Twin, 1979). The negative connotation associated with being a "tomboy" prevented many girls from playing in sports, thus decreasing their opportunities to increase their strength and improve their physical well-being (USCCR, 1980). Sex stereotyping of sports apparently grew out of the attitude that it was unfeminine for women to participate in sports (USCCR, 1980), and that their interest in athletics indicated they may not be able to catch a man, or indicated lesbianism (Fasteau, 1979). Another discrimination facing the women athletes were the developing of bulging muscles (Myers, 1981). Because of the muscle myth (Hart, 1979), some women feared the developing of bulging muscles through athletics (Myers, 1981). Occasionally the impression that the muscle myth was true was the reality that some women athletes were indeed muscular, but participation in sport could not make changes in the hereditary and structural factors of any individual (Hart, 1979).

Wilmore (1974) noted another obstacle for women in

sport as the "social or cultural restriction imposed on the female" (p. 55). These restrictions derived from the Victorian Era and unfairly denied women the right to good health (USCCR, 1980). The myth that girls and women lacked interest in sports appeared to be supported by the low participation rates compared with boys and men; however, these rates were more of a reflection of the lack of opportunity and fear of being thought "masculine" than a lack of interest (USCCR, 1980). Despite these obstacles, women and girls were participating in sports in greater numbers than ever before.

Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972

American values began changing in the 1970s, especially with regard to the appropriate image of women. In an attempt to end sexism, which influenced the American system of education, women's rights advocates turned their efforts toward legislative solutions (Greendorfer, 1989a). In 1972, the single most important impetus for the explosion of girls' and women's participatory opportunities in sport was Title IX of the Education Amendments Act of 1972, prohibiting discriminatory practices in educational institutions (Grant, 1989). This landmark law applied to any educational program in an institution that received any federal funds, the majority of schools in this country, from elementary schools through colleges and guaranteed equal

opportunity in all aspects of education, including sports (Reith, 1992). Title IX of the Education Amendment of 1972 mandated the following: "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance" (USCCR, 1980, p.7). Title IX put the force of law behind the fact that women were entitled to a fair and equitable share of whatever opportunity a federally-assisted educational institution offered; which meant no sex discrimination in admissions, scholarships, employment, rules and regulations, physical education, and athletics (Twin, 1979). Unfortunately, this coherent plan mandated few absolute actions for an institution to take; therefore many complex questions remained unanswered (Dunkle, 1979).

Equal opportunity in athletic programs has been closely scrutinized and remained a controversial issue (Dunkle, 1977). Section 86.41(a) of Title IX of the Education Amendment Act of 1972 contained a broad mandate that required the following:

> No person shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, be treated differently from another person or otherwise be discriminated against in any interscholastic,

> intercollegiate, club or intramural athletics offered by recipient, and no recipient [institution] shall provide any such athletics separately on such basis. (Dunkle, 1977, p. 13)

Although Title IX was passed in 1972, it was not until 1975 that the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) issued a regulation implementing this legislation (USCCR,1980). During a 45-day review period by congress, numerous attempts were made to substantially weaken the regulations; in particular, efforts were made to obtain an exemption for the revenue-producing sports and a removal of the mandate for coed physical education classes (Grant & Geadelmann, 1977). Texas Senator John Tower (R) introduced the amendment to the Education Amendments of 1974 to exempt revenue-producing sports for the purpose of "preserving the revenue base of intercollegiate activities" (USCCR, 1980, p. 7).

These attempts and similar endeavors to alter the coverage of Title IX were unsuccessful, but the threat of future attempts remained (Grant & Geadelmann, 1977). The final regulations interpreting the laws made specific provisions for "separate but equal" treatment of the sexes with regard to athletics (Geadelmann, 1978). The National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs (1981) stated that Title IX did not require educational

institutions to provide any particular programs, facilities, or services; it simply required that any sport which were offered be provided on a non-discriminatory basis to women and men alike. Dunkle (1977) stated, "Title IX does not require colleges to duplicate their men's program for women or to offer exactly the same sports in exactly the same fashion for both women and men. Nor does it equate equal opportunity with equal penny-per-penny expense. Rather, it requires overall equal athletic opportunity, with specific athletic offerings being determined primarily by the interests and abilities of female and male students" (p.1). In order for women athletes to attain equal opportunity mandated by Title IX, women must be given the same opportunities and benefits as their male counterparts (LaNoue, 1976).

The benefits of the Title IX mandate are numerous. Women's teams are now provided excellent coaching with compensation for their work (Durrant, 1992). This compensation given to female team coaches is not as substantial as the pay given to coaches of male teams (Acosta & Carpenter, 1992). Comparable equipment and supplies are also available to the women's athletic program in terms of need and use (Fox, 1992a).

In the area of coaching, both colleges and secondary schools need to focus on the availability of quality female

coaches, their assignments, and the compensation given to them (Reith, 1992). Equipment and supplies include, but are not limited to, uniforms and apparel, sport-specific equipment and supplies, instructional devices, and conditioning and weight-training equipment (Reith, 1992). Female coaches also need to be offered better scheduling of games and practice times (Fox, 1992a). Compliance in this area needs to follow a strict schedule by which boys' and girls' teams alternate in getting the preferred times for practice and games (Reith, 1992).

Growth has also occurred in such areas as budget allocations, participation rates, skill level, program offerings, and spectatorship (Blinde, 1989). Even as early as the 1970s, there was a demand that "reasonable opportunities" for athletic scholarships should be available in proportion to the numbers of students of each sex participating in intercollegiate programs; institutions were permitted to maintain different numbers of athletic scholarships for men and women, but needed to award them based on equitable criteria and amounts (Gerber, 1979). Today, male and female athletes must also receive the same travel and per diem allowances, academic tutoring opportunities, medical and training services, and equivalent housing and dining services (Reith, 1992). Even with all these equal opportunities available by the mandates of Title

IX, complaints still exist.

The most criticized aspect of the Title IX amendment is the lack of enforcement of the mandate by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) (Grant & Geadelmann, 1977). The Office for Civil Rights (OCR) of HEW is the primary government office that enforces Title IX (National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs, 1981). Title IX covers three major areas of high school and college athletics: athletic financial assistance; effective accommodation of student interests and abilities; and other program components (Reith, 1992). Institutions of higher education have failed to comply fully with Title IX because the enforcement has been lax (Gerber, 1979). Administrative complaints concerning possible Title IX violations are filed with OCR, and for these complaints to be true violations, females must receive less than male athletes (Reith, 1992).

In November 1974, the Women's Equity Action League (WEAL), along with several other groups, filed suit in the U.S. District Court in the District of Columbia, charging the HEW with failing to fulfill its responsibilities to girls and women by not enforcing Title IX (USCCR, 1980). By November 1978, HEW had received 93 complaints alleging that 62 institutions of higher education did not provide equal opportunity for women (USCCR). HEW, as a result of the suit, was ordered by the court to enforce all Title IX

issues and to close all complaints received by the department by September, 1979. The chief weaknesses of Title IX were its poor procedures for enforcement, and its provisions were confused and led to government inefficiency (Berger, 1986). Berger (1986) also stated, "It also may be that sex discrimination has a low priority and that is the reason behind the lack of enforcement of this law" (p. 26). There is little doubt, however, that Title IX represents a major breakthrough for women in sports. Ley (1974) says, "It is the greatest step forward for females since they were granted the right to vote" (p. 129). The National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs (1981) stated that much progress has been made toward the goal of Title IX, and the position of women and girls in sports today resembles the glass which is "half full or half empty", depending on one's outlook. Yet the Post-Title IX era of women in sports is primarily characterized by transition and change.

The Post Title IX Women's Athletic Program

The most prolific change in women's sports, following Title IX, was the governing body change from the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) to the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA). Greendorfer (1989b) stated that the price women paid for increased participation and recognition in sports has been the loss of administrative control. The demise of the AIAW

in the summer of 1982, caused by the initiation of Division I women's championships by the NCAA, caused an abrupt loss of leadership for women's intercollegiate programs (Grant, 1989). This movement of control represented a shift from the process-oriented model of athletics to a business-like, bureaucratic sport structure which clearly reflected professionalism, commercialism, and an overriding emphasis on winning (Hult, 1984). Donna A. Lopiano, AIAW President at the time, was reputed to have led a large contingent of AIAW supporters in an unsuccessful bid against the "takeover" of women's athletics (Weiland, 1988). The underlying interpretation of Title IX was the assumption that in order for women to have equal opportunity in intercollegiate sport, they had to be given the same opportunities as their male counterparts (LaNoue, 1976). Consequently, the sporting model advocated by female leaders of the AIAW, along with its value structure, rapidly gave way to the male-defined model of intercollegiate sport (Greendorfer, 1989b).

One of the best measures for equal opportunity for women in this new era of sports is to maintain separate, but equal teams. Fasteau (1979) states that when interdependence leads to the success of a team, the main advantage becomes the commitment in two strong separate, but equal teams. Hult (1973) stated that the standard set by

the Division for Girls and Women's Sports (DGWS) for all women's sports programs on the high school and college levels is clear and feasible. DGWS subscribes to the belief that teams for girls and women should be provided for all girls and women who desire competitive athletic experiences equal to that of the men's programs. This concept is necessary to ensure the greatest participation rate for women. Legally the separate, but equal doctrine has been permitted by the Title IX Regulations, and it is likely that the rationale has been that the interests of females cannot be served in any other way (Grant & Geadelmann, 1977). Geadelmann (1978) stated, "whether true equality will be separate, together, or some combination of the two is a question that we need to carefully consider as we shape the future of athletic programs in this country" (p. 72).

The changes in women's sports have also dramatically affected the athletes (Cuneen, 1989). Blinde & Greendorfer (1987) found that athletes of the 1980s were more likely to participate in sport for competition and skill comparisons as well for extrinsic reasons, while athletes of the 1970s participated for social reasons. Athletes of the 1980s were more likely to indicate that sport participation inhibited their personal and social development, forced them to sacrifice friendships and social life, and forced them to sacrifice activities other than sport (Greendorfer, 1989b).

They often resented the fact that after their college careers had ended, there were few professional sport opportunities in which they were able to use their highly developed sport skills, and may questioned the time, energy, and sacrifices associated with college sport participation (Blinde, 1989).

Blinde (1987) found that the greater degree women's sport programs emulated a male model, the more likely the female athlete would experience alienation, conflicts, and exploitation. Programs most exploitive and alienating were those that emphasized values that were bureaucratic, impersonal, authoritarian, and dominating in nature (Greendorfer, 1989b). Blinde (1987) concluded that the value climate of the male model of sport may not have been consistent with the lived experience of females. Despite these misgivings, the 1980s athlete was more likely to believe that her sport experience was meaningful, self-actualizing, and satisfying, and that the non-sport skills which she developed while participating in sport were useful for other aspects of life (Blinde, 1989). Greendorfer (1989b) stated, "on one hand, sports binds the post-Title IX athlete to an extremely narrow social sphere; but on the other hand, it offers them limited experiences through actual and imaginative journey that would not ordinarily be available to them" (p. 58). Today sport is

viewed as an avenue by which the female athlete can realize her potential and achieve a sense of self-actualization (Blinde, 1989).

The women's gender equity movement is still progressing into the 1990s. Durrant (1992) stated that the acceptance of girl's and women's participation in sport as a positive and beneficial pursuit has been the greatest impact of Title IX. A national sport study in 1988, sponsored jointly by the Women's Sport Foundation (WSF) and Wilson Sporting Goods, revealed that 87 percent of all parents felt that sport participation was equally as important for girls as for boys (Garfield & Harris, 1988). Participation rates for females in sports had jumped from approximately 300,000 participants in interscholastic sports before Title IX to over 1.8 million nationally in 1992 (Sawyer, 1992). According to Kane (1989), "these figures do reflect important and much needed change, they in no way indicate that the female athlete is unrestricted in her quest for gender equality in sports" (p. 59). Problems however, still remain even in the late twentieth century.

Donna Lopiano, executive director of the WSF, noted that girls traditionally get into sports two years later than boys and have a 70 percent drop-out rate during the ages of 6 to 14 mainly because of the following:

The community doesn't support them, they never see

> their picture on television, they never see their picture or name in the newspaper, they never hear their names on the radio. As a result, they don't think the community values their participation. (Bedell, 1992b, p. 7B)

Lopiano continued, "if we still think that athletics is a right for little boys and it's a privilege for little girls, we are making a deadly mistake for our children" (Bedell, 1992b, p. 7B). While opportunities for women to compete had improved, there continued to be an overall lack of equal opportunity (Fox, 1992a).

The Education Department's Office for Civil Rights has shown a renewed interest in the subject of sex equity after a decade of what was widely received as inaction (Lederman, 1992). The National Collegiate Athletic Association also has shown signs of interest in sex equity. According to a study on sex equity by the NCAA, men's teams received 69.5 percent of the athletic scholarship money, 77.4 percent of the operating money, and 82.8 percent of the recruiting money spent by colleges that play big-time sports (Lederman, 1992). Also, areas such as funds used for coaches' salaries and participation opportunities have a ratio of at least two to one when comparing money spent on men's and women's athletics (Moline, 1992). Lederman (1992) noted that the average Division I college paid its male assistant coaches a

total of $353,339, compared to $78,131 for its female coaches, or 4.5 times as much.

Coaching opportunities for women, since the enactment of Title IX, also have not matched the promise of equal opportunity (Acosta & Carpenter, 1992). Soon after Title IX, a significant number of males began applying for positions as women's coaches and were subsequently hired to fill the positions. In 1972, over 90 percent of the coaches for women's collegiate teams were women; in 1990, only 47.3 percent were women (Acosta & Carpenter, 1990). Athletic administration also was negatively affected by the enactment of Title IX (Fox, 1992b). Prior to 1972, almost all collegiate women's athletic teams were administered by a woman athletic director. Today, few women's athletic programs remain separate from the men's programs; therefore, females direct less than 16 percent of womens' sports programs (Sawyer, 1992). Women advocates have cited the NCAA's gender equity study as proof of the lack of progress of female athletes towards equality (Lederman, 1992b). Existing discriminations, legal ramifications, and possible resolutions have become the significant avenues that must be addressed for women to become truly equal in the sport arena.

Recommendations

Attention has once again been focused on the issue of

sports equity during the twentieth anniversary of Title IX. Women must celebrate how far they have come in twenty years, but they must also be realistic about their current status, and take the necessary steps in addressing the inequities which continue to exist (Durrant, 1992). Advocates for women's sports have considered numerous recommendations and solutions for equality. Discussion of one of the most controversial remedies was the reduction of football squad sizes and installing spending caps on recruiting budgets in football and men's basketball (Wolff, 1992).

At almost all colleges that play football, that sport, for which there is no comparable sport for women, accounted for a significant portion of the gap between men and women (Lederman, 1992). Wolff (1992) stated, "you can't tell me it's more valuable educationally to have a fifth tier on the football depth chart than to have a women's softball team" (p. 61). Even excluding football, major differences still exist. Lederman (1992) cited, "the average Division I college, for instance, spends more than $167,000 on operating costs for men's basketball and just $60,000 for women's basketball" (p. A46). This leads to the conclusion that increased funding for women's programs needs to be addressed (Fox, 1992b), and that the ratio of male and female participation figures and scholarship opportunities should be in proportion with that of the undergraduate

population (Grant, 1989).

Another recommendation to increase sports equity is to ensure equal media recognition (Fox, 1992b). Female athletic participation continued to be underrepresented and trivialized in the media and in part was due to the traditionally stereotyped "feminized" woman rather than the serious athletic competitor (Kane, 1989). Equitable media coverage of women's and men's intercollegiate athletic events must be met to properly portray the importance of women's sports.

Publicity is another factor that must be provided on an equal basis (Reith, 1992). Publications, sports information personnel, ticket sales, schedules, cheerleaders, and pep-bands are just a few components that are included under publicity.

The key solution to equality, according to Wolff (1992), is for the NCAA to make compliance with Title IX a condition for membership. This would allow the governing body of athletics to penalize institutions that do not comply with Title IX, as they would any other of their rules and regulations. The NCAA should add rules to promote sex equity, such as minimum participation rates or significant cuts in football scholarships (Lederman, 1992). This would be a sign that the NCAA is willing to accept a national leadership position in providing equal opportunities for

women.

The author of this paper, a professional educator and girl's coach at North Ridge Middle School in North Richland Hills, Texas, recommended increasing the scholarship numbers offered to women athletes at the collegiate level. A male football or basketball player should not receive more benefits than a woman basketball or volleyball player. Since the sport of football consists of numerous male athletes, women should be offered more sport opportunities that would increase their participation numbers. The total number of men and women athletes should be in proportion with each other.

Another recommendation by the author is to have female athletic administrators regulate and evaluate the women's athletic program. A female director would bring a woman's perspective to the administrative side of the athletic program, and would allow an aggressive action to any discrimination found in the department. Co-athletic directors at the secondary and collegiate level would enhance the administrative enforcement of equality in all areas, particularly with both programs.

A female head basketball coach at a 5-A school in Texas described the need for improved publicity for women's sports. Society is influenced by what is portrayed on the television and heard on the radio. This enhanced exposure

would gain public attention with regard to the positive characteristics of female participation and could also increase revenue for that particular sport. Newspapers should publish articles, pictures, and scores of women's competition comparable to that of men's. For example, if one page covers men's football, then another page should cover women's volleyball. This written exposure, on an equal basis, would project the idea that women's sports are as important as the men's sports. If the media is not covering the women's program sufficiently enough, phone calls and letters could be made by interested parties. If the calls and letters are frequent enough, the media could perceive the public's need to be informed of women's sports.

Recommendations to solve the equity issue must be acted upon immediately. Promotion of equality and the elimination of discrimination will transpire when laws are understood, discriminations are known, and action takes place (Durrant, 1992). These procedures, if properly adhered to, will lead to the futuristic vision of women's sports without discrimination. Both young girls and women have accomplished more in twenty years in the sports arena than any other group which has sought equality (Sawyer, 1992). Merrily Dean Baker, the athletic director of Michigan State University, feels the next decade for women in sports will be promising (Kort, 1992). Baker, only the second woman

currently heading a Division I athletic department at a school that offers football, says, "I look at the 70s as a time when the American public accepted women athletes; the 80s as a time it supported them; and the 90s will be a time for America to embrace women in sport" (Kort, 1992, p. 19). In the future, men and women must come together to develop a healthy sporting environment free of sex, religion, and race discrimination, and provide equal opportunity for all participants (Sawyer, 1992). Women should be proud of their advances and optimistic about the future of women in sports.

CHAPTER III

CONCLUSIONS

On June 23, 1972, Congress enacted Title IX of the Education Amendments that prohibited sex discrimination in educational institutions that received any federal funds (Reith, 1992). This law guaranteed the right of women athletes to equal opportunity in educational sport programs. The elimination of sex discrimination in America has resurfaced in the 90s with the twentieth anniversary of Title IX (Durrant, 1992). Institutions are under increased pressure to comply with the law, conform with the principle of equality of the sexes, and provide more equitable athletic opportunities for women (Fox, 1992a).

Prior to Title IX, physical activity was believed to be "unfeminine" and too strenuous for women to participate (USCCR, 1980). Girls and women had to overcome numerous obstacles and discriminations for increased participation in sports. Once society values started to change, women sport advocates turned to legislative solutions to help end sex discrimination in the area of competition (Greendorfer, 1989b).

The legislative mandate, Title IX, made a tremendous difference in the way educational opportunity is viewed

(Durrant, 1992). Title IX was the first comprehensive federal legislation to include the rights of students, as well as employees, to be free of sex discrimination (Grant, 1989). It forced institutions to reexamine their policies towards women's athletics and precipitated change in countless programs (Fox, 1992a). Still, changes are desperately needed in the area of athletics to bring the women's program towards equity with the men's programs.

Acosta & Carpenter (1992) concluded with the following statement:

> It has been said that Ghandi spoke about three levels of human interaction. The first and lowest level involves seeing differences between people and therefore, treating people differently. The second level involves seeing differences but treating people equally despite these differences. The third and idea level is to no longer see differences and treat all equally. Title IX, which might have been a stepping stone from the first to the second level has not functioned very well in its first twenty years. We, as well as our sons and daughters, are forced to be less than we could be as long as we remain on the first level. For tomorrow's sake, act for equity today. (p. 41)

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